DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 030 185 EA 002 250

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The Secondary School Principalship and the Challenge of Change.
Pub Date [68]
Note-18p.
EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC-$1.00
Descriptors-*Administrator Characteristics, Administrator Role, Communication Skills, Educational Administration, *Educational Change, *Instructional Improvement, Leadership, *Principals, School Superintendents, *Secondary Schools, Staff Role, Teacher Administrator Relationship, Teacher Role

In his role as the manager of educational change, the secondary school principal is responsible for determining programs and procedures, enlisting teacher aid in those determinations, resolving staff resistance to change, identifying staff members as effective change agents, and working with them to implement change. To produce significant gains in pupil learning, four basic changes in school operating procedures are essential. (1) The principal should give about three-fourths of his working time to instructional improvement, (2) teachers should have more free time to improve their teaching skills, (3) pupils should have more time for independent study, and (4) there must be better utlization of educational funds, facilities, supplies, and equipment. Suggestions to help the principal discharge his primary responsibility to improve instruction include freeing him from other responsibilities by enlarging his administrative staff, increasing staff productivity through a horizontal and relatively informal type of organization, delegating decision-making and administrative responsibilities as much as possible, improving his own communication skills, and maintaining a clear understanding of roles and relationships among school system administrators. (JK)

EDO 30185

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP AND THE CHALLENGE OF CHANGE

Ellsworth Tompkins
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The complex problems which the United States faces today--technological innovations, the explosions of knowledge and population, urbanization, and changing social relationships--profoundly affect the schools of this country. To cope with these problems, the secondary school principal must become the manager of change.

David Lilienthal has written, "It is worth reminding ourselves that management does not really exist. It is a word, an idea. . .an abstraction. But managers exist. And managers are not abstractions; they are men, they are human beings. . .with a special function to lead and move and bring out the latent capabilities and dreams of other human beings. . . .

"This I believe, and this my whole life's experience has taught me: the managerial life is the broadest, most demanding, by all odds, the most comprehensive and the most subtle of all human activities. And the most crucial."[1]

In his role of managing change, the principal is responsible for selecting new programs and procedures, enlisting teacher aid in that selection, resolving staff resistance to change within the school, identifying those staff members best equipped to act as "change agents," and working with them to implement change. The principal also needs to make use of new leadership

[1] Lilienthal, David. Management: A Humanist Act, p. 18. New York: Columbia University Press, 1967. Copyright 1967, Carnegie Institute of Technology.

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styles, group dynamics, and the techniques of human-relationships training. Of course, he shares these responsibilities with the school superintendent, the board of education and others in the community--but, as the local school leader, he is where the action is.

The usual means through which secondary school principals try to keep up to date are inadequate. No longer can brief attendance at conventions and conferences, hurried reading, and conversations with salesmen and other office visitors suffice. Nor can principals improve schools by means of conventional faculty meetings, by bulletins and notes, and through conferences in the office or the faculty lounge. Moreover, during the school day the principal lacks immediate contact with teachers busy in the classroom. Therefore, he needs to reorganize his own functions and staff with different priorities.

So that the principal may learn, think and plan better, he needs also to get away from his school on occasion to a place where competent consultants and materials are available. The combination of a summer holiday with a work session is not considered a sufficient opportunity for concentrated effort.

A midyear institute could be organized around five major areas of study: Curriculum Content, Teaching and Learning Theory and Methods, Educational Inventions and Innovations, Evaluation, and the Process of Change. Participants would consider varied ideas and programs in the field of education. The whole gamut of approaches--including large-group presentations, small-group discussions, and independent study with current and new audiovisual mechanisms--would be drawn upon in analyzing the multiplicity of problems and challenges.[2]

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[2]Trump, J. Lloyd and Smith, Carl. Midyear Institute for Secondary School Principals, pp. 1-3. Washington, D. C., National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1968.

Continuous progress materials would facilitate the principals' independent study, enabling each one to choose and move forward at his own rate. However, much more than independent study is needed. Stimulating presentations by carefully selected consultants plus the interchange of ideas and sensitivity training in small groups also are essential.

The Rationale and Process for Improving Schools

A North Central Association survey conducted nationwide in 1966 revealed a widespread following among United States secondary schools of such innovations as flexible scheduling, team teaching, independent study, teacher aides, technical aids, and new curricular organizations. Schools less frequently report evaluation of these innovations. When they do, in many cases the findings are quite disappointing. Typically, as measured by standardized tests or local, teacher-made tests, no significant differences in pupil achievement occur. Usually, a substantial majority of teachers, pupils, and parents favor the change--and often the principal obtains a better position elsewhere because innovative leadership is in great demand.

Improving schools encompasses much more than the introduction of innovations. The following four basic changes are essential in order to produce significant gains in pupil learning and in the professionalization of teaching. These changes <u>all</u> are needed in a coordinated manner.

<u>First</u>, the school principal should devote about three-fourths of his working time to the improvement of instruction. What teachers do in an innovative program must be quite different from their activities before the change or the learning of pupils will not improve significantly. Most principals need to develop a different staff than they have now to help with administration

and supervision to free them from many duties that now occupy the major portion of their time and energy. Of course, each principal also needs to learn how to be effective in working with the teachers since his present methods often are relatively unproductive.

Second, the teachers' roles and how they spend their time also have to change. Even if the principal has three-fourths of his time to work in the improvement of instruction, the teachers will not make significant changes so long as they spend 25 or more periods per week teaching in self-contained classrooms. Teachers need more time to restudy what they do, to prepare better, and to improve evaluation. Also, teachers need changed staffing patterns so that each one's competencies are utilized better. As a matter of fact, teachers need to be free about half of the school day so they have time for their own further education and to perform better the activities which innovations require.

Third, assuming that principals have time to devote to the improvement of instruction and that teachers have been freed for reeducation and better planning, there will still not be substantial improvement in pupil learning unless the pupils themselves have more time for independent study, that is, to experience a variety of learning activities away from the constant supervision of teachers. Even if teachers produce better motivation and more materials for self-directed study and appraisal, the pupils still will be limited if a flexible schedule does not release them from regularly scheduled groups for something like 60 percent of the conventional school week.

Fourth, even if all of the preceding three changes are made, none will be particularly effective unless there is better utilization of the "things" of education--the buildings, the equipment and supplies, and the money. Innovative planners need to save money and space so that new kinds of expenditures and space may be provided without adding greatly to the costs of instruction.

The School Principal

Today's principal averages a 50-hour week on school work and other directly related activities. He needs to show by the use of his time how important he regards the improvement of instruction. Regardless of whether his school is large or small, those activities should occupy three-quarters of his working time, or about 37 hours a week. The remaining time--about 13 hours per week--he may devote to other school tasks.

The principal has two basic clusters of problems: (1) How does he find time to improve instruction, how does he go about it, and how does he know whether he is successful? (2) Since he is in charge of the total educational enterprise for his building, how does he manage all the difficulties, operations, and opportunities he faces in such matters as discipline, attendance, pupil activities, guidance and testing, plant management, transportation, office management, cafeteria operation, public relations, teacher militancy, and opposition to higher taxes?

The secondary school principal needs to organize a different staff to answer those questions in the preceding paragraph. What is the organization to improve instruction? How does he handle the other problems that take so much of his time?

First, here is how the middle, junior, or senior high school principal may handle the second cluster of problems, the ones to which he should give one-fourth of his time--13 hours per week. The principal of a large school requires a variety of specially trained assistants, most of whom in turn supervise specially trained subordinates. They provide the principal with the information he needs and handle most situations.

One position is the Building Administrator, who is responsible for supervising the school plant, the cafeteria, transportation systems, and the office, and for seeing most visitors and salesmen and deciding if they need to see someone else. This person has specific training for these assignments, including their place within the framework of school objectives. He has authority for final decisions and makes them so effectively that seldom does anyone feel the need to talk with the school principal.

A second assistant is the External Relations Director, who is responsible for translating the school's financial needs into written proposals to the central office, to all levels of governmental agencies, to foundations, and to other groups. Financial proposals and the expenditure of moneys translate the school's goals into practice. This assistant, therefore, also develops and conducts the school's two-way public relations program.

A third assistant is the Personnel Administrator, with responsibility for supervising attendance, discipline, and guidance and for developing liaison with other community youth-serving agencies. His contacts include police and other juvenile authorities. He works also with teachers on their own welfare problems. Parents and other persons having problems with school youth see him.

The fourth position is the Activities Director, responsible for pupil and faculty extraclass activities, including the supervision of athletic and non-athletic programs and faculty social activities. Community groups and individuals see him in connection with their use of school facilities and other cooperative activities.

None of these assistants needs the training typically given to today's assistant principals or to principals. Quite to the contrary, each position requires a unique background of preparation and experience. Their professional

escalation is to larger schools or to central office or state supervision of similar activities. It is not to the principalship.

The number of these assistants varies with the size of the school. For example, a 300-pupil school combines all of the assistants into one person. A 2,000-pupil school has four assistants, each with full-time assignments. Still larger schools provide more helpers for each assistant.

However, in any size school, the principal himself spends no more than 13 hours per week supervising these assistants, receiving their reports, attending events, or dealing with appeals from their decisions. He is firm in the policy of replacing any assistant who is unsuccessful in his area of responsibility to the extent that the principal continues to have to spend a disproportionate amount of time and effort on it.

Now, consider the principal's major task--the 37-hour per week assignment--the three-fourths of his time that he works with teachers and others to improve teaching and learning. The school organization for improving instruction is different from the staff described earlier.

The large-school principal may spend three-quarters of his time with teachers on instruction and still lack time to get the job done. This principal needs highly trained persons to help with curriculum and instruction. These persons, called Assistant Principals, are prepared like the principal himself for those particular responsibilities. Some of these assistants may become principals.

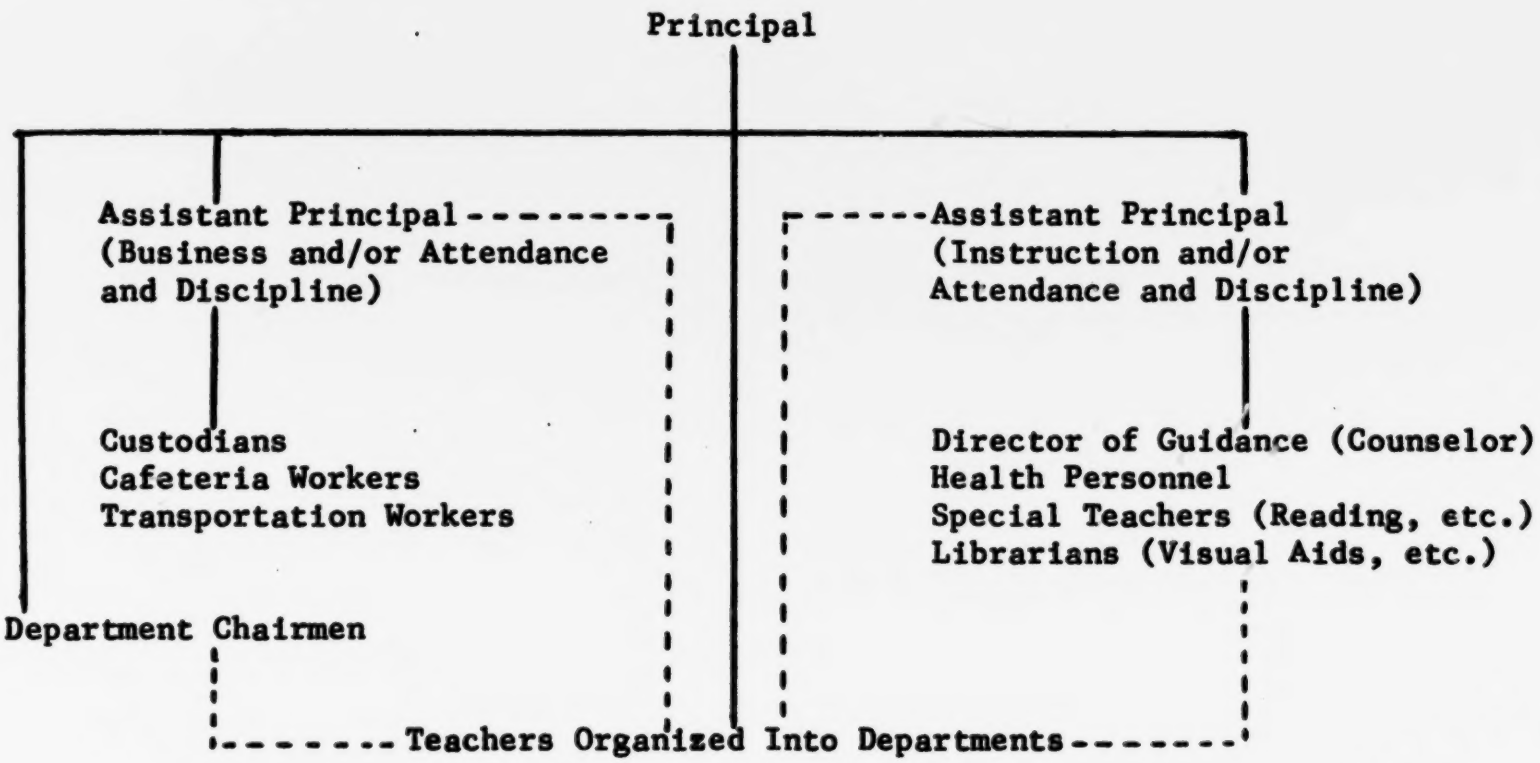
The number of assistant principals also varies with the size of the school: none up to 500 pupils, one for each 1000 pupils or major fraction thereof above that. That means a school with 1200 pupils has one assistant principal; a school with 2100 pupils has two, and so on.

The chart on page 9 symbolizes how a larger school should be organized. Regardless of the size of the school, the principal analyzes the tasks to be done, recognizing that he carries the responsibility for the quality of the total educational program in his school. Then he separates carefully what he needs to do himself from what others can do for him. Precisely what he does and how he does it is described later in this paper. The important matter now is that he has 37 hours per week to work on improving instruction.

Cost of the New Staff

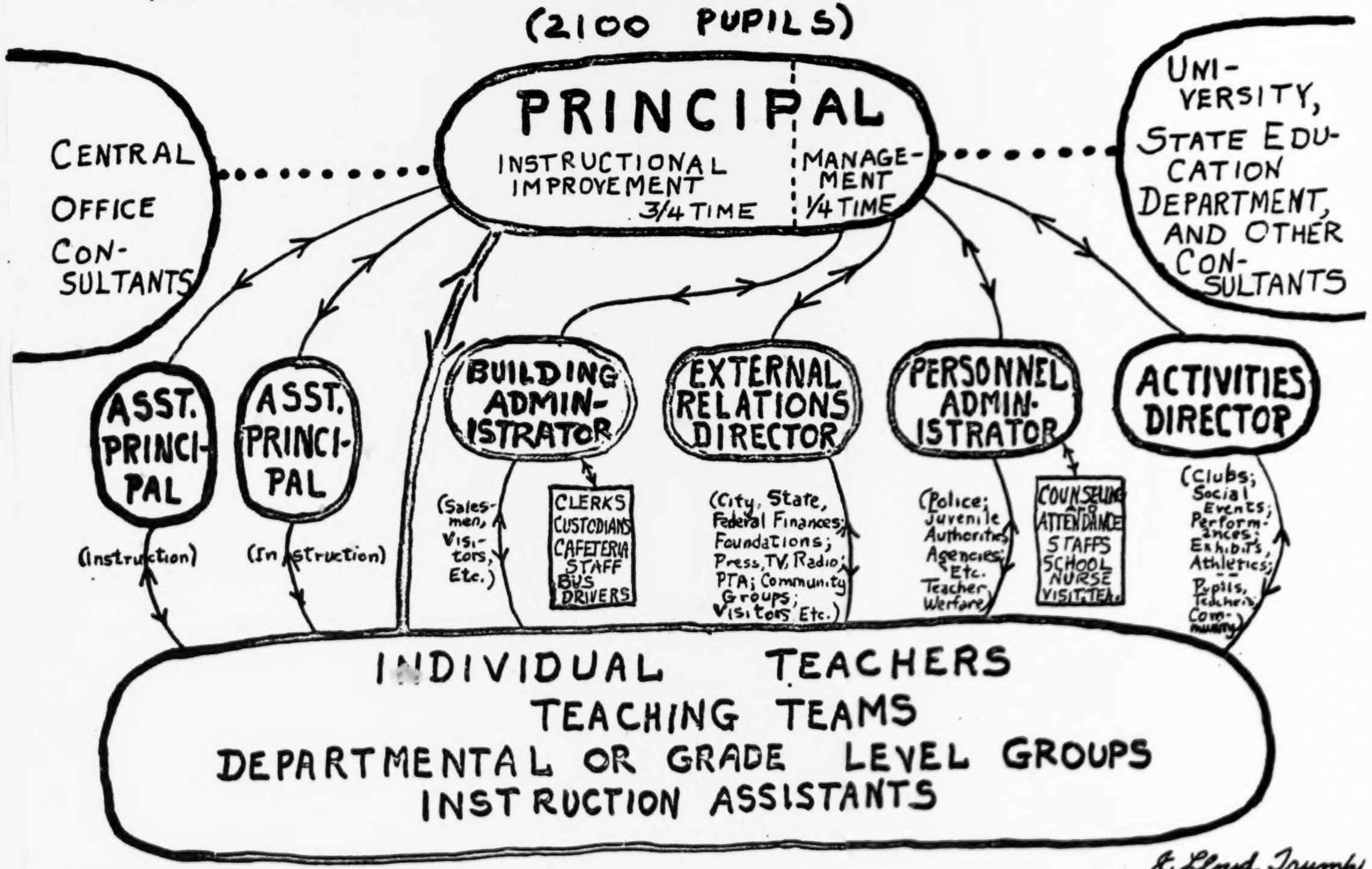
The role of the principal recommended here requires changes in personnel. The hypothesis is that staff changes can be made to achieve that result without adding greatly to the costs of administration-supervision. Although local conditions vary, the following calculations illustrate the approach, using as a basis a typical secondary school with 1260 pupils.

The <u>conventional</u> school with 1260 pupils might have this structure:



TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION - LARGER SCHOOL

(2100 PUPILS)


CENTRAL OFFICE CONSULTANTS
PRINCIPAL
INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT 3/4 TIME
MANAGEMENT 1/4 TIME
UNIVERSITY, STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, AND OTHER CONSULTANTS
ASST. PRINCIPAL
(Instruction)
ASST. PRINCIPAL
(Instruction)
BUILDING ADMINISTRATOR
(Salesmen, Visitors, Etc.)
CLERKS CUSTODIANS CAFETERIA STAFF BUS DRIVERS
EXTERNAL RELATIONS DIRECTOR
(City, State, Federal Finances; Foundations; Press, TV, Radio; PTA; Community Groups; Visitors Etc.)
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATOR
(Police; Juvenile Authorities; Agencies; Etc. Teacher Welfare)
COUNSELING and ATTENDANCE STAFFS SCHOOL NURSE VISIT. TEA.
ACTIVITIES DIRECTOR
(Clubs; Social Events; Performances; Exhibits; Athletics; — Pupils, Teachers, Community)
INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS
TEACHING TEAMS
DEPARTMENTAL OR GRADE LEVEL GROUPS
INSTRUCTION ASSISTANTS

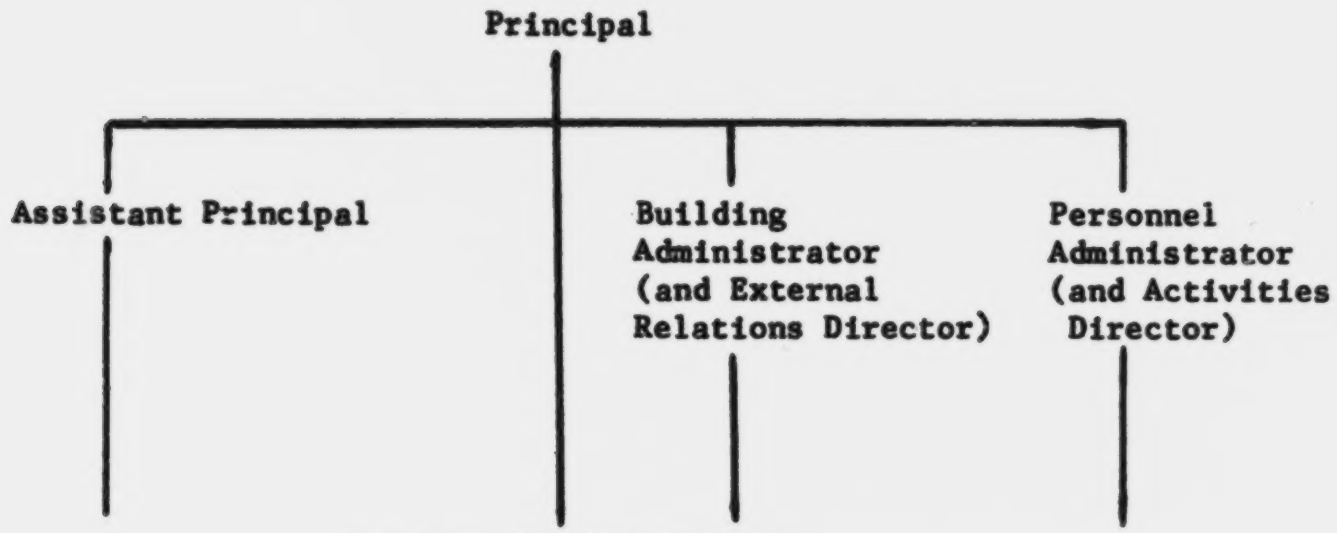
J. Lloyd Trump
(January 1967)

NASSP Administrative Internship Project

The costs of the conventional school's structure for administration-supervision might be (each school will need to calculate):

Position	Salary
Principal	$ 12,750
Assistant Principal	10,000
Assistant Principal	10,000
Department Chairmen and Other Teachers with Released Time	8,500
Total	$ 41,250

The innovative school with 1260 pupils might have this structure (see page 9):



The costs of the innovative school's structure for administration-supervision might be:

Position	Salary
Principal	$ 12,750
Assistant Principal	10,000
Building Administrator	9,250
Personnel Administrator	9,250
Total	$ 41,250

The innovative school has four full-time administrator-supervisors compared to the conventional school's three and the responsibilities are delineated better. The principal can give three-fourths of his time, and the assistant principal full time to the improvement of instruction. Department chairmen and released time (which probably cost more than shown) are unnecessary since teachers are scheduled with pupils only one half of the day. The innovative structure costs no more than the conventional.

The Administrator and His Staff

A basic problem facing principals is how to advance the professional growth and development of the members of his staff. Studies of productivity have found that an elaborate structure for supervision tends to have an adverse effect upon the person supervised. Where the work of an organization is broken up into many highly specialized divisions or departments, it is difficult to achieve cooperation spontaneously. Each department tends to become jealous of its prerogatives and find ways to protect itself against potential encroachment. Thus conflict can develop both at staff and supervisory levels, and can force the administrator to spend time reconciling differences. Further, the administrator often initiates added formal controls and insists on clearance through channels for ideas and suggestions, which in turn enlarges the source of conflict, slows down action, and impairs the adaptability of the entire organization. This type of organization is often referred to as vertical.

Good administrators recognize the need for a flat rather than vertical type of organization, in which the individual is expected to rely more upon his own judgment and only to a limited extent on his administrator. Thus he is free to develop more self-reliance and individual discretion. In this way,

the administrator moves on to other responsibilities, if he is able to secure and maintain the willing support of colleagues and subordinates.

Good administrators have imaginative ideas for staff organization:

(1) They find the typical organization chart too closely allied with formal structure. It usually is of little help to individuals in collaborating on problems that cut across department lines. Thus the informal structure can be more effective than the formal one, although they both are necessary.

(2) Job descriptions written for staff members so they may know exactly what to do (and what not to do) may not be useful, unless they write their <u>own</u> job descriptions after conferences with the appropriate administrators.

(3) The fewer levels of supervision between the lowest and highest job in the organization, the greater the possibility for individual productivity with fewer barriers to communication.

(4) Providing a supervisor for a few employees affects productivity negatively; one supervisor for a larger group may work out better because the supervisor gets in the way less.

(5) Reduction in the number of supervisors increases job-satisfaction of the teacher, yet how the supervisor relates to teachers is indeed important.

(6) Job-satisfaction, however, is not a result achieved by being "nice" to teachers, or giving the impression of doing them a favor.

Good Administrators Make Few But Important Decisions

No principal's job is primarily decision-making. His day does not consist 100 percent in making decisions. Since the decisions that determine direction and fundamentals are few indeed, anyone who makes a great many decisions is a poor administrator. The importance of the secondary school administrator

is seen whenever he has not performed. Those persons who make decisions much of the time have not done their homework well.

The administrator has to live with the fundamental decisions he makes. First, there are personnel decisions, which must be done carefully, and not in a hurry. Most of the problems that beleaguer and undercut an administrator result from unnecessary personnel mistakes. A fast personnel decision is almost always wrong.

A second fundamental decision concerns the principal's basic posture. He may wish to be flexible, but he cannot avoid taking a stand. The principal must take time to make clear "What is my stand?" and "How do I get an understanding of the consequences of the stand?"

Also, the decision-maker needs dissent to understand what he is doing. Mainly, a decision without an alternative is not a decision at all.

Good administrators have found that it is not the number of decisions they make that determines success, but rather the number of actions of others that they approve. It is unwise to "sell" the decision by becoming a promoter; this can be a disaster.

Delegation of Administrative Tasks

Good administrators are aware that a high degree of specialization can create boredom and job-dissatisfaction, which in turn create a loss of interest in an individual's work. Principals approach the twin problem of over-specialization and monotony by job-enlargement.

Job-enlargement is a term for delegation to staff members of whole responsibilities and appropriate authority. Whole responsibilities can better be discharged when the administrator does not try to run the show. To help

develop staff members' potential, the principal contrives opportunities for giving them a chance to demonstrate ability. Under delegated authority, administrators endeavor to secure the willing, if not enthusiastic, support of the staff.

Where it has been tried, both in schools and industry, job-enlargement has resulted in greater individual job-satisfaction and often an increased efficiency. The individual has a deep desire to have a job that is regarded as important, one that will convince him that he is neither a cog nor merely a serial number in the pattern of organization.

Most staff members are endowed with an urge to achieve dignity within their work groups. They are earnest indeed in trying to get somewhere, to experience satisfactions that can come from accomplishing personal goals, and from setting new targets of professional opportunity. The practice of job-enlargement by the administrator can challenge staff members to fuller responsibility. At the same time, he enhances his leadership.

Principals' Communication Skills

Staff members in large organizations may be separated professionally, socially, and even physically from each other. As gaps widen, tensions may develop which can result in misunderstanding. Hence, successful administrators pay heed to finding out the attitudes of their staff; they ask questions.

When a group of teachers was asked, "What would you like to tell your administrator about improving staff relations?" the teachers said, "Administrators should <u>listen</u> more than they do!" Good administrators recognize the significance of active listening. They are aware that listening is a social skill and that it develops through practice. It is not something that happens when one is thinking about what he is going to say as another person is talking.

Good administrators develop this competency by: (a) listening patiently before commenting or interrupting; (b) avoiding tendencies to disapprove, admonish, or argue; (c) giving attention to the spoken words and the underlying sentiments they indicate; and (d) helping a person to say what he has difficulty in saying. They test their techniques of active listening by paraphrase; that is, by restating what the person has said to him and by asking if this was what he meant. Thus the administrator can check that both have understood. The technique of paraphrase helps to clarify what has been said, and also places more at ease both the speaker and the listener.

The principal asks questions, such as, "What would you recommend?" "How can it be done?" "What objections can be made?" "How do you think it will work?" And in this manner he accelerates communication flow.

Personal Qualities of Principals

Good administrators have vigor, confidence, courage, and drive; they possess uncommon common sense. Although seldom overcautious, they give themselves time to consider, discuss, weigh alternatives, and maybe decide. They sense that there are few tasks in which ability alone is sufficient. Of equal importance are loyalty, sincerity, fair play. They adhere to basic commitments. They have confidence that people who gain fuller understanding of their own commitments will cooperate, or feel free to discuss their differences.

They are optimistic about the future, despite a realization that the worst may be just around the corner. They try to reduce theory to principles, to translate abstractions to particulars, to weigh potential decisions.

They know there have been few successful people who were not good at details; yet fully recognize that they must not fall into the trap of details.

Otherwise the administrator can cause inertia. Their purpose is to make it possible for staff members to do their jobs to their own satisfaction.

Administrators cannot practice self-pity, nor do they expect sympathy for the long hours they work or for the extent of the problems they face. Finally, they know it takes sustained effort and patience to achieve understanding with staff members.

Relations Among Administrators

In clarifying and assessing the relations among administrators within the school system, there are inherent difficulties. The line of responsibility runs from superintendent to principal to teachers in the line of authority. The charge to the other staff is to be advisory to those in the line of authority. Although it may be difficult to differentiate clearly the roles of line and staff, it is essential to separate those who are expected to do and those who are expected to advise.

In a school district, the superintendent makes recommendations to the board of education, which approves or rejects the recommendations; in addition, the board determines policy in response to community demands or to socio-economic developments. But no matter how policy is determined by the board of education, the superintendent is expected to implement it, as agent of the board.

The secondary school principal is in charge of his school and spends the majority of his time in improving instruction, vitalizing the education program, and in providing needed services to youth. If the understanding of relations between lines of authority and staff is not clear, it has to be made clear or there is danger ahead. The chief administrator has to assume

authority and indicate what others should do. If this does not occur, staff and line can muddle along and face the possibility of running into booby traps. There must be a chain of responsibility which is clear enough to be workable.

In long range planning, involvement of all the professional staff is a positive necessity; but once a decision has been reached and policy has been adopted by the school board, those in line of authority follow through on implementation. In short range planning the staff may or may not be responsible for implementation, except by specific direction of the chief administrator.

The secondary school administrator's role and that of the superintendent are changing, and the potentiality of erosion of responsibility does exist. Are superintendents and principals really needed to administer schools? Can their functions be more efficiently assumed by persons who are not educators, as once was the case in education history? What are the alternatives to central administrative responsibility for schools, either on a city-wide or decentralized basis? Does it lie in district decentralization?

The important relationships between administrators in a school system have not received the study they deserve. It is time for all concerned--school systems, professional associations, state departments of education, and the U. S. Office of Education to develop a deeper penetration into these highly important relationships.

There is some truth to the statement that administrators identify and work out relationships on a pragmatic rather than an empirical basis. Nonetheless, it may not be defensible for them to depend more on folklore than on careful analysis even though they may be doing much better in practice and much poorer in their explanations or theory.

Within the past twenty-five years so many good publications on administration--books, research reports, brochures, and articles--have been written that one would have to spend much time in skimming through the literature, let alone in scanning it. Most of the publications have distinguished between public and educational administration, and it is the latter which is the subject of our inquiry here. The literature on educational administration does not always distinguish between levels of administration: superintendents and principals; college presidents and deans; and state and federal government officials in education.

W. Earl Armstrong once remarked that in his capacity as principal, superintendent, college dean, and official in government, his administrative duties could not be differentiated with respect to setting goals, planning programs, orientation and involvement of staff, and efficient operation. It might be said, then, that principles of educational administration apply to all administrators wherever they are. However, each type of administrator needs special emphases in the knowledge he possesses.

The secondary school principal needs to know a great deal about all aspects of instruction. To improve teaching and learning--and the evaluation of both with accompanying feedback--is his most important task. The principal who manages change must never stand still--must never stop learning.